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The purpose of this 11th-grade unit on language is to acquaint students with persuasion because it is one of the basic functions of discourse and a principal method of achieving change in a complex and democratic society. In this unit, students are provided with opportunities for recognizing, evaluating, and using persuasive discourse. The unit moves inductively from example to generalization and is organized around three categories for the analysis of persuasion--(1) the writer or speaker as persuasive agent, hero, or model, (2) the discourse itself as a tool of persuasion, with emphasis on abstraction levels and logical and psychological methods of language manipulation, and (3) the audience and the context of persuasion--the historical and geographical context, the sociological context of group values, and such psychological motives as subsistence, social approval, mastery, and habit. Materials in the unit include lectures, procedural notes, discussion questions, suggested activities, speaking-writing assignments, a list of resource materials, and a bibliography on the rudiments of persuasion. (See TE 001 328 and TE 001 329 for 10th-grade units on discourse.) (JB)

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Unit 1102

The Language of Persuasion

Grade Eleven

TE 001 332

CAUTIONARY NOTE

These materials are for experimental use by Project English fellows and their associates who contributed to their development.

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INTRODUCTION FOR THE TEACHER

The purpose of this unit is to acquaint the eleventh grade student with one of the basic functions of discourse: persuasion. Persuasion may be defined tentatively as an attempt to secure a controlled response in action or belief through language. In Western civilization, there are basically two methods of achieving change: force and persuasion. Central to a democratic society is the rejection of force; we tend to distinguish the totalitarian society from the free society in part by the way in which change is affected. In the closed society, there is often only one system of beliefs; in the open society, characteristically, one finds a set of competing persuasions. Insofar as a society allows choice, it enables persuasions to compete in a free market place of ideas. A democracy holds that the best persuasion will ultimately be chosen.

Our society has made a commitment to persuasion as opposed to force; and persuasion is a vital part of the complex society in which we live. The success of government, business, social and personal relationships depends to a great extent on the understanding of the structure of persuasion, the ability to evaluate persuasion, and skill in the use of persuasion.

Most speaking and most writing are, to a certain degree at least, persuasive. The short story must be convincing, its characters believable, and its plot solution plausible and satisfying. Poetry, too, is persuasive. The reader must gain a new insight of real importance. Editorials, partisan speeches, advertisements, radio and television commercials, magazine articles, and books are designed to set forth a certain point of view and to change thought or behavior accordingly.

This MPEC unit on persuasion is introduced in the eleventh grade to give students an opportunity to acquire a knowledge of persuasive discourse, an introduction to the means of evaluating it, and practice in the use of persuasive speaking and writing. It is assumed that the students have had an introduction to the modes or functions of discourse in the tenth grade. (See MPEC units for Grade Ten) However, the unit on persuasion is so planned and constructed that it may be presented in the eleventh grade without the tenth grade introductory unit.

The unit is organized around three headings suggested by Aristotle as categories for analysis of persuasion. We consider first, the writer or speaker as persuader. The second part of the unit is concerned with writing and speaking as tools of persuasion; we include materials on semantics, the psychological methods of language manipulation, and the logical methods of language manipulation. In the third part, we consider the audience and the contest of persuasion, including the historical, sociological and psychological contexts.

This unit on persuasion may be taught concurrently with literature which illustrates the uses of persuasion. The unit may be used to introduce literary works or it may be used to suggest different approaches to literary words previously presented. The literary selections will be taken from American writings which constitute the literature usually presented in the eleventh grade. Numerous references to materials are made throughout the unit, and the appendices contain many materials which the teacher may find helpful for the unit.

TO THE TEACHER

Procedures, Sample Questions for Discussions, Sample Introductions, Sample Summaries, and Extended Technical Resource Material are offered as suggestions. Sample Answers to discussion questions are supplied in parenthesis.

Generally, the unit is designed inductively, from simple to complex, from examples to generalizations. The "generalizations" you may wish students to retain are labelled for your convenience.

Introductory Lectures: May Be Read to Students.

Have you ever been persuaded about anything? What does it mean to be persuaded? Did you observe anything as you came to school that might have been planned to persuade you? Did anyone see a billboard? An advertisement? Perhaps if we find out what is involved in persuasion we will see that we are involved in persuasion everyday. Let us work on a definition of persuasion. Let us say, first of all, that persuasion is planned. The billboard was put in a certain place, probably because the owner felt it would attract more attention in that place. The owner probably paid for the billboard. If you are to persuade your parents to let you have the car, it usually takes planning; persuasion usually does not come about accidentally. Persuasion, then, is first of all, planned.

Teacher May Wish To Repeat Or Emphasize Underscored Sections.

Secondly, persuasion is planned to bring about change. The advertisement may have been planned to have you buy a product; it may have been planned to have you vote for a political candidate. When we persuade, we attempt to change a person's thoughts or his actions. In other words, persuasion aims to alter human behavior.

Third, persuasion is planned to bring about change by manipulating the motives of men. Since men do things for reasons, we need to find out what those reasons are, and plan our persuasion to affect those motives.

Fourth, persuasion is planned to change behavior by manipulating the motives of men toward some goal. Hence

we say that persuasion is directed toward some predetermined end. What was the goal the advertiser had in mind when he put up the billboard? What goal does the political candidate have in mind when he asks for your vote? Persuasion is then planned to change some behavior in a way which the person persuading has already in mind.

SUMMARY We can then put our four parts of the definition of persuasion together. Persuasion is "the conscious attempt to modify thought and action by manipulating the motives of men toward predetermined ends." (Brembeck and Howell, Persuasion, p. 24).

Teacher may wish to write this definition on the chalkboard.

Now that we have a definition of persuasion, let's look at what happens when we communicate with one another.

General Discussion of Introductory Lecture

"Before we begin a consideration of the act of persuasion, let's examine some of the features of communication in general." (This may be review or it may be relatively new material for the class; the teacher is to gauge his time accordingly.) "What elements are necessary for communication to take place?"

Sample Introduction

Discussion

"Communication is obviously always around us--and we are constantly taking part in the process of communication." (Be certain students understand that communication can and does take place in written forms --and continue to make this clear throughout the unit.) Here, if he has the time, the teacher might raise the question of what constitutes communication in a non-verbal sense--gesture, facial responses, grunts, etc.)

"As I mentioned before, we are going to talk about a particular kind of communication--or form of discourse --which we label persuasion.

1. What implications does this term have for you?

2. What did you observe on your way to school today that might be classified as persuasion--as you now understand that term?"

   (Billboards, shop windows, bulletin boards, posters, radio ads, banners in the halls of the school)

3. Can you recall from your study of history a particular change or movement that was brought about by the efforts of a person or group to change conditions through persuasion?

   (Assuming this unit is taught early in the year, responses might center about early examples in American history.)

4. The occupations of some people center around the task of convincing or persuading people. What kinds of work can you name that are centered on convincing people?

   (Lawyers, clergymen, salesmen, public relations people, retail, businessmen, clerks, etc.)

5. We've mentioned many different situations in which persuasion is important. Can you identify some elements which all of these seemingly different occupations and situations have in common?

   (All involve people, all are trying to change a belief or a way of doing things, most are conscious of their attempts to change the belief or action.)

A. THE SPEAKER OR WRITER AS PERSUADER

Discussion

(Begin with discussion, perhaps along the lines of the following questions.)

Sample Questions

1. When you are persuaded, what would you say are the most important factors--or even the factors which influence you to change your mind?

   (List the responses on the board. The responses should include who says it, what is said, personal needs and desires and goals and drives, what the situation is.)

   (Note: Teacher begins with the "who"--perhaps because of judicious placement of the responses on the board.)

2. Who is speaking--does this make a difference to you?

   (responses)

Class Responses

3. Why?

   (responses)

4. Let us suppose that the same statement was made by two persons, for example Khrushchev and President Johnson. Would there be a difference in the way you would respond to the statement?

5. What characteristics about this person make a difference?

6. In general, what characteristics about a persuader make a difference in how you will respond to the persuasion?

   (Responses should include <u>personal qualities</u>--character, reputation, appearance, sincerity; <u>attitudes</u>--toward the audience, subject, and the speaker himself; <u>general ability</u>--intelligence and knowledge; and his <u>mechanisms</u>--voice and bodily action.)

Note

Sample Discussion Summary

"Once again, let's explore the reason we believe or want to believe certain people in certain situations."

(Guide the answers, through careful questioning, to include the idea that we give prestige or don't give it because of certain needs or deficiencies on the part of the receiver. We grant prestige to someone else to remove

repair, or cover up a deficiency in ourselves.

Note

"The term which the classicists give to this granting of prestige (here the teacher may have to supply even the term "prestige" and discuss its implications) is "ethos."

Write "ethos" on chalkboard.

"It was (is) a word of Greek origin which was one of the "trivium" of proofs for speakers in ancient Greece and Rome. This trivium included

a. Logos--logical proof

b. Pathos--emotional proof

c. Ethos--character, good will, good judgment

Ethos has been described in several ways by several people. Listen carefully as I read some of these ideas on ethos."

Read To Students.

William M. Sattler: "One interpretation of ethos is that the speaker exhibits qualities of a personal nature--intrinsic goodness and honesty, sound judgment, an interest in the well-being of the audience, together with respected traits of non-ethical nature--which induce listeners to approve the arguments given in a speech."

St. Augustine in 427 A.D.: "A man is persuaded if he likes what you promise, fears what you say is imminent, hates what you censure, embraces what you commend."

Kenneth Burke (A Rhetoric of Motives, p. 55): "You persuade a man only insofar as you can talk his language by speech, gesture, tonality, order, image, attitude, ideas, identifying your way with his."

Clevenger and Anderson: "Ethos--the receiver's image of the communicator at a given time."

May Be Read To Students.

"Most scholars would agree that ethos is an important factor in persuasion much as we have already done. The more systematic of them have tried to isolate or reveal the kinds of ethos--and since we've already

noted various reasons for granting the communicator prestige or ethos we might assume that the attempt to gain the confidence of the receiver in more formal situations takes different forms.

A professor from the University of Pittsburgh--Otis M. Walter--has decided on three classifications or types of ethos--the <u>agent</u> pattern, the <u>identification</u> pattern, and the <u>hero</u> pattern. Let's look at each more carefully.

Write "agent" on chalkboard.

"First we have the <u>agent</u> or <u>specialist</u> pattern. We tend to delegate responsibility to someone who seems to be able and willing to help us. A specialized world has led to this. Our willingness to grant "ethos" to a specialist might rise from our need to understand the complex world (or one phase of it) in which we live.

Discuss

Ask students for examples of times we might grant <u>agent status</u> to a communicator.

(understanding nuclear fallout, physics, or chemistry, understanding the working of a new motor or a new *foreign policy*)

May Be Read to Students

The person who is seeking to establish "agent" ethos should try to establish the following ideas:

1. He is dedicated to the achievement of a goal that the audience desires or ought to desire.
2. He is dedicated to this goal for its own sake, not for his personal gain.
3. The goal is practical, but not only materialistic.
4. The speaker has caught the spirit of the goal and has the kind of mind which will allow him to become expert in the problem and then do the right thing about the problem.
5. The speaker understands the barriers to a solution, and how to overcome these.

6. His understanding is different from, and better than others who also understand the problem.

7. The speaker's power, position, friends, experience, ability and understanding qualify him to secure the goal.

8. He has helped the audience before, or has helped persons with similar problems.

Sample Summary

"As we look at the other kinds of ethos which speakers or people in general try to set up for themselves, this list of items will be helpful for purposes of comparison and for identifying this particular type of ethos."

Lecture-Discussion Continued

May Be Read To Students

Let's take a look at another type of ethos--the identification pattern. This type of ethos depends for its success on our desire to find common ground or be "one of the fellows" and the general willingness of audiences to grant some degree of prestige to "plain, ordinary folks" who are just a little more capable than us. The person seeking to establish this for himself usually uses such ideas as:

1. I am like you; I am in the same plight; I face or have faced the same problems; I come from the same class or background; I have had the same experiences; I value the same things; I have made the same mistakes, etc.

2. I accept the members of the audience for their own sakes rather than as a means to my end. I respect the audience; I would not desert its members; I have good will for the audience. I have made mistakes--I do not set myself about the audience in this respect; I can give and take a good joke. I notice the good in the audience, not just the bad or the weaknesses.

3. I am like the audience, but a bit more so in certain respects which the members of the audience cherish in themselves. The audience has daring--I have a bit more; the audience has insight--I have a bit more; the audience has charm--I have a bit more; the audience has humor--I have a bit more, etc.

Discussion Question

Where have you heard some of these techniques used before?

(Politicians are probably the first "kind" to come to mind. Point out also such instances as clergymen who frequently use the "we" approach, teachers in the same action, and the "ads" which seek to establish common ground.)

Contrast the techniques used by the person seeking to establish <u>agent</u> ethos and the person seeking to establish <u>ethos through identification</u>.

Lecture-Discussion Continued

The third pattern we will look at is what is often called the <u>hero pattern</u>. Some of the factors which affect the audience and the persuader on such occasions include:

1. The audience wishes to escape the pain and responsibility for making choices and working toward goals. The power to make choices and do the work is given to a hero figure.

Question

Can you think of instances in which this kind of ethos is used?

(Using athletic heroes to sell razor blades, breakfast cereals or vitamin supplements, etc.)

2. The persuader may try to become more than the agent for a movement--he may choose to assume the role of symbol for it. He is selfless, totally dedicated to the movement. He is not open to ordinary frailties; he has more courage, stamina, power, honesty, etc. than most could even hope for. In other words, he is "gifted."

Class Exercise

Ask students to take a piece of paper and record what pattern of ethos development they believe to be exhibited by the following:

Patrick Henry saying: "I am not a Virginian but an American."

Herbert Hoover saying: "I am glad to come to West Branch. My grandparents and my parents came here in a covered wagon. In this community they toiled and worshipped God. They lie buried on your hillside...My roots are in this soil."

What kind of ethos would we grant to a popular teacher or a community leader (you might want to use a proper name here) speaking on "Why You Should Be (or Do) _____.?

(Many additional items might be used. It will be desirable to continue to review the principles of ethos and their application as the unit develops. Ample opportunity for this is present in the other readings for this unit.)

Class Assignment--For Discussion Or Writing

(A writing assignment--or an assignment for class discussion--as you prefer:)

Select one example of each of the three kinds of ethos and explain briefly why you believe the example is an effective one. (If the assignment is one in writing, you might ask the students to evaluate the success of a speaker or an individual in his effort to establish ethos. For this purpose, you might want to use the appended list of speeches or refer students to reprints of recent speeches in Vital Speeches or other magazines.) See Appendix B.

Discussion Material

Students should be able to supply some ideas on the limits to which any one type of ethos building technique can be used. Emphasize the negative reaction people have to the inexpert "expert," the false hero, the "small town, raised in the country boy" from Chicago or to the person who tries to be all things to all people at the same time. In other words, avoid excesses and avoid confusion or melding of roles.

Additional Activities

See appendix A for other definitions of persuasion. The students may want to compare the definitions. Perhaps brighter students may wish to undertake a project to find out what common elements occur in the various definitions of persuasion.

Summary and Transition

"We will continue to note instances of the effects of ethos in literature and in public address as we examine other elements of persuasion. What are some of the other factors we listed as being important to the persuasive act?"

(List what, where, when, why, etc. on the board, judiciously placing "what" at the top of the list that we might begin consideration of the "tools" of persuasion.)

PERSUASION UNIT: PART II:

WRITING AND SPEAKING: THE TOOLS OF PERSUASION

Sample Introductory Lecture

The teacher may wish to begin with the question used in Part I: "When you are persuaded, what would you say are the most important factors--or even the factors which influence you to change your mind.

Since you have already considered who said it, concentrate on those responses concerning (1) what is said and (2) how it is said.

In this unit, we are concerned with the persuasion event itself: The billboard (if this example is used in Part I), the essay, the editorial, the speech.

If the persuader is to influence others, he must rely on the tools of persuasion. What seems to be a basic tool of persuasion? What do the essay, the editorial, the speech have in common? The essay may never been spoken; the speech may never been written. What is the common tool of persuasion for both the essay and the speech?

. (The teacher looks for "language" as the answer.)

Overview

In Part II, we will consider first of all the area of Semantics. Secondly, we will treat the psychological methods of language manipulation. Finally, we will consider the logical categories of language manipulation. Now listen to the following:

Sample Lecture

If he is to influence others, the persuader must rely on the tools of persuasion, the basic tool being language. The speaker must learn to adapt language to the occasion and the circumstances of that occasion. The persuadee, on the other hand, must be able to identify

Sample Lecture
Continued

and interpret language. It is therefore important, whether you are the persuader or the persuadee, to have at least a basic understanding of semantics: the study of meaning and the changes of meaning. Both must be aware that a word is only a representation of something else and that a limited number of words must represent an unlimited number of items in one's environment. The word "chair" does not mean the same thing to all persons, for instance. The mere word "chair" cannot call to mind all the details of the object. One might say the word "chair" to another person, meaning a chair with which they are both familiar. The other person may, in that case, supply, from memory, all but a few of the obvious details of that particular chair. Transmitting an incomplete image is the process of <u>abstracting</u>. If one used the word "chair" to refer to the category of chairs, the process of abstracting becomes still more vague. Since all kinds of chairs are included, one cannot expect several listeners to have identical or even similar images in their minds in response to the word "chair." One person might think of a chair constructed of tubular steel; another, of an overstuffed chair; another, of a French provincial style chair; another, of a Danish modern type--<u>ad infinitum</u>. More abstracting must take place in this situation because more details are lost and impressions are more general.

"S.I. Hayakawa, the semanticist, states that, because our minds rebel at the idea that a word has many meanings, we succumb to the 'one word, one meaning fallacy.' He believes that:

> 'Such an impasse is avoided when we start with a new premise altogether--one of the premises upon which modern linguistic thought is based; namely, that no word has exactly the same meaning twice. The extent to which this premise fits the facts can be demonstrated in a number of ways. First, if we accept the proposition that the context of an utterance determines its meaning, it becomes apparent that since no two contexts are ever exactly the same, no two meanings can ever be exactly the same.'
> (Quoted in Brembeck and Howell, p. 144)

"How does one go about making an abstraction? Supposing that you want to tell somebody about a paring knife. This diagram may help you to understand the practice of abstracting;

Levels of abstraction at which you can tell somebody about a paring knife:

Process of Abstracting

Teacher May Wish To Write On Chalkboard

Household necessity (Highest Level)
An article of hardware
Kitchen utensil
Knife
Paring knife
Stainless steel paring knife
Knife No. 1
Picture of Knife No. 1
Model of Knife No. 1
Object-Paring Knife No. 1 which is held up for examination (Lowest level of abstraction)

Lecture-Discussion Continued

The above diagram indicates that the lower levels of the above list are the most meaningful because they leave less to the listener's imagination. About the lowest level there can be no doubt: The lower we go on the list, the less abstracting (losing fewer details) needs be done.

"What does the 'levels of abstraction' process have to do with language? This: It is a useful tool of language analysis for improving the precision of communication. By using definition we may overcome the barrier of communication by a limited number of symbols."

Procedure:

Sample Discussion Question

How can we work out the levels of abstraction process for one of the following?

Ring, Table, Teaspoon, Lamp

Student Activity

Select an article from a newspaper or magazine. Choose a few paragraphs that use terms in the upper levels of abstraction. Try re-writing them at the lower levels. Does this process change the original meaning?

Discussion Continued

"Besides developing an awareness of the necessity for being precise in the use of words, both the persuader and the persuadee must develop an awareness of the difference between signal and symbol responses, both of which are involved in persuasion. Susanne Langer in Philosophy in a New Key has this to say about these two types of responses:

> "The modern mind is an incredible complex of impressions and transformations; and its product is a fabric of meanings that would make the most ambitious tapestryweaver look like a mat. The warp of that fabric consists of what we call "data," the signs to which experience has conditioned us to attend, and upon which we act often without any conscious ideation. The woof is symbolism. Out of signs and symbols we weave our tissue of 'reality.'" (pp. 235-236)

"Howell identifies the two types of responses in this fashion:

Signal response:	immediate, unthinking, largely automatic, uncritical
Symbol response:	deliberate and descriminating, modifying reaction tendencies to harmonize with the immediate environment

"To illustrate the difference between the two types of responses, S.I. Hayakawa cites the example of the chimpanzee that was taught to drive an automobile. He learned to operate the machine quite competently; but when he came to a red light, there was one significant difference between his driving and that of a skilled human driver: The chimpanzee's was a purely signal response. When the light turned green, he would start the car and forge ahead regardless of obstructions before him. He did not interpret the signal in terms of his surroundings. His was an automatic, uncritical response. The light meant go ahead, not go ahead if it is practical. The human driver, on the other hand, looks around, surveys the situation, and goes ahead when the light turns green only if the environment allows it. His is a symbolic response. As Languer puts it, "we can drive without thinking, but never without watching."

Transitional Remarks: Sources of Signal Response

There are many sources of signal responses in language usage; we shall discuss three: slanting, two-valued orientation, and four major language tropes. We shall now attempt to define and illustrate these three devices.

The teacher may want to duplicate a part of this material for distribution to students.

1. Slanting involves selecting descriptive methods which will encourage acceptance or rejection. Usually only a small proportion of factual material is involved, and the persuader attempts to achieve acceptance or rejection by a choice of words. If the writer or speaker wants to achieve acceptance of an idea, he employs positive loading; if rejection, negative loading. Words which carry high connotative meaning in addition to their denotation are commonly called "loaded words."

Example

To illustrate this technique, Wayne C. Minnick in The Art of Persuasion (p. 193) quotes a paragraph from Wendell Phillips' "Eulogy of William Lloyd Garrison":

pro-slant / anti-slant / pro-slant

If anything strikes one more prominently than another in this career...it is the plain, sober, the robust English element which underlay Cromwell... Erratic as men supposed him, intemperate in utterance, and mad in judgment, an enthusiast gone crazy; the moment you sat down at his side, you find him patient in explanation, clear in statement, sound in judgment, studying carefully each step, calculating each assault, measuring the force to meet it, never in haste, always patient, waiting until the time ripened, - fit for a great leader.

2. Two-valued Orientation (language distortion) is a second type of language device or source of signal response. Two-valued orientation places objects described in extreme stereotyped categories, thus tending to distort and destroy precision of communication. Political speakers frequently employ this technique which lends itself to arguments for preservation of the status quo (the present system of institutions) in preference to changing suggestions advocated by those who would make a extreme language, as a general rule, should be avoided.

Example

Everything is all black or all white; there are no shades of gray.

Brembeck and Howell in Persuasion, p. 158, cite this example from the political arena:

"Herbert Hoover, speaking to the Republican National Convention in 1936, used such an appeal. 'There are some principles that cannot be compromised. Either we shall have a society based upon ordered liberty and the initiative of the individual, or we shall have a planned society that means dictation no matter what you call it or who does it. There is no half way ground.'"

Teacher should write "tropes" on chalkboard

3. Four Master Tropes Figurative language provides a varied source of signal responses to language; it helps to clarify and give attention value to communication. Removed from "life facts," these "tropes" (or figures of speech) tend to evoke an increased variety of listener or reader response. One precaution is, however, to specify what is being talked about figuratively to insure a proper interpretation. Figures of speech, which tend to enliven and dramatize argument provide a challenge to the ingenuity of the persuader and help to convince the persuadee to accept or reject the concept involved.

There are a number of tropes. In this section we will consider four major tropes: metaphor, irony, synechdoche and metonymy. Appendix C contains several other figures to which the teacher may wish to refer the class or a particular student.

Metaphor: Definition and Examples

A. METAPHOR an implied comparison of two things genrally dissimilar, a comparison by substitution in which one thing is referred to as being the other.

Distribute copies of Susanne Langers paragraph beginning "Metaphor is our most striking evidence of abstractive seeing," on p. 125 of Philosophy in a New Key (New York: Mentor, 1964).

Susanne Langer warns against the use of the "faded metaphor" in the selection I have just distributed.

Examples of Metaphors from Speech and Prose:

"Slavery they can have anywhere. It is a weed that grows in every soil."
-Edmund Burke, Speech on Conciliation with America, March 22, 1775.

"Old religious factions are volcanoes burnt out."
-Edmund Burke, Speech on the Petition of the Unitarians, 1792.

"He (Alexander Hamilton) smote the rock of the national resources and abundant streams of revenue gushed forth."
-Daniel Webster, Speech at a Public Dinner at New York, March 10, 1831.

"Great men are guide-posts and landmarks in the state."
-Edmund Burke, Speech on American Taxation, 1774.

Examples of Metaphor, Continued

"Nobility is a graceful ornament to the civil order. It is the Corinthian capital on polished society."
-Edmund Burke, Reflections on the Revolution France.

"The king, and his faithful subjects, the lords and commons of this realm--the triple cord, which no man can break."
- Edmund Burke, A letter to a Noble Lord, 1796.

B. IRONY Irony is a figure of speech in which the literal meaning of a statement is the opposite of the intended meaning. The Greeks often used irony to understate the effect they intended, often in ridicule. Irony, then, implies a reversal of the literal meaning of a statement.

Consider the following speech of Antony (in Shakespeare's Julius Caesar), his use of "honorable is used ironically.

Antony's Speech

"Friends, Romans, countrymen, lend me your ears!
I come to bury Caesar, not to praise him.
The evil that men do lives after them,
The good is oft interred with their bones;
So let it be with Caesar. The noble Brutus
Hath told you Caesar was ambitious;
If it were so, it was a grievous fault,
And grievously hath Caesar answered it.
Here, under the leave of Brutus and the rest--
For Brutus is an honourable man;
So are they all, all honourable men--
Come I to speak in Caesar's funeral.
He was my friend, faithful and just to me;
But Brutus says he was ambitious,
And Brutus is an honourable man.
He hath brought many captives home to Rome,
Whose ransoms did the general coffers fill;
Did this in Caesar seem ambitious?
When that the poor have cried, Caesar hath wept'
Ambition should be made of sterner stuff:
Yet Brutus says he was ambitious,
And Brutus is an honourable man.
You all did see that on the Lupercal
I thrice presented him a kingly crown,
Which he did thrice refuse. Was this ambition?
Yet Brutus says he was ambitious,
and, sure, he is an honourable man.

Consider the following letter, which first appeared in Harper's Magazine. Note that the whole letter is ironic, rather than single words in it.

Department of English
October, Any Year

Dear Coach Musselman:

Remembering our discussions of your football men who are having troubles in English, I have decided to ask you, in turn for help.

We feel that Paul Spindles, one of our most promising scholars, has a chance for a Rhodes Scholarship, which would be a great thing for him and for our college.

Paul has the academic record for this award but we find that the aspirant is also required to have other excellences, and ideally should have a good record in athletics. Paul is weak. He tries hard, but he has trouble in athletics.

We propose that you give some special consideration to Paul as a varsity player, putting him, if possible, in the backfield of the football team. In this way, we can show a better college record to the committee deciding on Rhodes Scholarships.

We realize that Paul will be a problem on the field, but--as you have often said--cooperation between our department and yours is highly desirable and we do expect Paul to try hard, of course.

During intervals of study we shall coach him as much as we can. His work in English Club and on the debate team will force him to miss many practices, but we intend to see that he carries an old football around to bounce (or whatever one does with a football) during intervals in his work.

We expect Paul to show entire good will in his work for you, and though he will not be able to begin football practice till late in the season, he will finish the season with good attendance.

Sincerely,
Benjamin Plotinus
Chairman, English Department.

C. METONYMY In this figure of speech, the name of one thing is applied to another thing with which it is closely associated. When we say "He keeps a good table" instead of "He served good food" we are using metonymy. Another example would be "Our ships opened fire" instead of "Our sailors opened fire." The "crown" stands for the king, and "Shakespeare" for his writings.

Consider the metonymy in the following example:

"The glories of our blood and state
    Are shadows, not substantial things;
There is no armour against Fate;
    Death lays his icy hand on kings;
        Sceptre and crown
        Must tumble down,
And in the dust be equal made
With the poor crooked scythe and spade."
        James Shirley

D. SYNECHODOCHE In this figure of speech, we use the whole to describe a part, or the part for the whole; we use genus to describe species, or species to describe genus. We say "fifty winters passed him by" instead of "fifty years."

In the poem by Shirley above, blood is used to stand for lineage or race; this is an example of synechodoche. We might use the term "ten hands" to refer to "ten workmen." Another example is drawn from Milton, where in "lycidas" he refers to the corrupt clergy as "blind mouths."

NOTE TO THE TEACHER: Psychological Methods of Persuasion

The following lables attempt to describe certain factors in the setting and in the message which may be manipulated by the would-be-persuader with psychological effect. The factors or categories do not explain the psychological processes involved, but do suggest the kinds of social and language activity which have been observed as instrumental in causing audiences to accept the speaker or writer's proposition.

The Psychological Methods of Persuasion

1. Proper Environmental Factors: All the surrounding stimuli of the occasion must be favorable. All stimuli that offer competing ideas and distractions must be removed. Only those visual symbols that are appropriate to the occasion and the setting thereof should be permitted.

2. Togetherness: A persuader may have members of the audience do things together to help create group solidarity. This technique tends to give an illusion of universality. It may involve a showing of hands or a "stand-up-and-be-counted" routine. It may be achieved by the singing of a song. As Howell and Brembeck say (p. 173), "...all movements which seek some common denominator of beliefs and actions of people rely upon the 'Together Devices.'"

3. Common-Ground: The common-ground approach is based on the assumption that we like and trust people who are like us. Master persauders through the ages have achieved their status because they were able to analyze accurately the beliefs, attitudes, ideas, and interests of the members of their audience. Christ, Theodore Roosevelt, Winston Churchill, and Franklin Delano Roosevelt are examples.

Student Activity

Describe a situation in which you have been a member of an audience for which there was a common ground.

4. Rationalization: Rationalization assigns logical reasons for opinions and actions which, in two ways, are not really rational.

   a. By helping the individual justify the desired end if he already has a desire for your product.

   b. By persuading others to accept conclusions we have already reached on a rational basis.

5. Repetition with variation to lend interest produces a cumulative effect.

6. It is usually helpful to support one's arguments to use Prestige names.

7. The Scapegoat: A target used by (unethical) individuals or groups for the purpose of absorbing tensions, to arouse hatred, and to focus aggressiveness on convenient targets outside the group.

8. The Big Lie: Dishonesty in advertising, the unnamed expert, sweeping claims, undocumented statistics, whispering campaigns, unverified newspaper column reports are all included in the big lie technique.

9. Appeals to Fear seek to break down resistance and to gain acceptance by creating anxiety, panic, hysteria, and futility.

   Examples: The protection rackets
   Hitler's techniques, 1936-1941
   Soviet Russia, 1945-

10. Loaded Words are used in each of the above techniques. Effective word manipulation is in evidence all about us.

Devices of the Institute for Propaganda Analysis

The following labels or categories of language manipulation represent another attempt to name what is taking place in persuasive discourse. They are not mutually exclusive categories, and they do overlap, in some instances with the psychological methods already discussed. Once again, they are categories devised only after observation and analysis of a great deal of propagandistic discourse during the time of World War II. The Federal government, during that period, sponsored an Institute for Propaganda Analysis which brought the attention of a variety of spcialists to the problems of psychological commitment during war time. One of the contributions of that Institute is the following classification of propaganda devices, useful in determining or naming the strategic use of language to secure agreement.

Other Devices Analyzed by the Institute of Propaganda

1. Glittering Generalities: Associating something with a virtue word gains acceptance and approval of the thing without examining its evidence.

2. The Name-Calling Device: Giving an idea a bad label causes us to reject and condemn the idea without examining the evidence.

3. The Transfer Device: By carrying the authority, sanction, and prestige of something respected and revered over to something else, the latter is made acceptable.

4. The Testimonial Device: This consists of having some respected or hated person say that a given product, program, or idea is good or bad.

5. The Plain-Folks Device: This is the method by which a speaker attempts to convince the audience that his ideas are good because they are "of the people," the "plainfolks."

6. The Card-Stacking Device: This involves the selection and use of facts or falsehoods, illustrations or distractions and logical or illogical statements in order to give the best or worst possible case for an idea, program, person, or product.

7. The Band Wagon: This technique has its theme, "Everybody's doing it." The propagandist tries to convince us that all members of a group to which we belong are accepting his program, that we must therefore join the crowd and jump on the band wagon.

Student Activities

Assignments:

1. Collect ads illustrating these techniques. Label each one, and analyze the reasons for the labels you have chosen.

2. Select an essay or editorial from a popular newspaper or periodical which is obviously persuasive and which, in your opinion, manifests instances of the psycholgoical methods or propaganda devices. Analyze the discourse, suggesting something of its organization and ultimate purpose, reading to other class members those sections which best illustrate certain of those "psychological strategies" under discussion. After collecting these materials, a class project might be the reproduction of portions of a series of such articles which provide the best illustration of the principles.

3. Select an area of contemporary controversy to which you should like to direct your attention. In a short paper or speech to the class, attempt to employ several of the "psychological devices" under consideration. At the conclusion of your assignment, discuss the relative effectiveness of the various "devices" in securing opinion change.

4. We recently witnessed two political conventions and an election campaign. Can you remember examples of how the "bandwagon" or "anti-bandwagon" devices were used? Check through newspapers from July 7 to November 7, 1964, to locate examples.

5. Listen to speeches of political candidates in the election campaign. What examples can you find of "glittering generality?: Of "name calling?: Of the "plain folks" device?

6. In those examples you found in question #5, how effectively were these devices used? What criticisms would you have of the devices you found?

7. Read the current editorials in such magazines as Nation, New Republic, National Observer, Time, U.S. News and World Report. What examples can you find of the psychological methods of persuasion?

8. Several speeches are contained in Appendix B. What examples of psychological devices of persuasion can you find in these speeches?

C. LOGICAL METHODS OF LANGUAGE MANIPULATION

NOTE TO THE TEACHER: The purpose of this portion of the unit is to present a cursory view of the various types of argument as described in Persuasion: A Means of Social Control by Winston Lamont Brembeck and William Smiley Howell.

No attempt will be made to enlarge upon the techniques. It is hoped, however, that your students will gain an appreciation of the procedures involved in persuasive discourse.

Introductory Lecture And Transition

We have studied ways in which psychological devices may alter the persuasion. We said that these devices were connected with a signal response. This meant an immediate, uncritical response. We now consider the logical methods of language manipulation. These are geared toward creating a symbol response; as we have considered it, a symbol response is a delayed, critical response. It asks the listener to suspend judgment. Western civilization has produced its systems of logic, and each society takes pride in the use of logical forms of persuasion. We now come to consider the logical forms of argument, and the way in which they work toward achieving a symbol response in persuasion.

We speak of the term "reasoned discourse" as a key to understanding the logical method of language manipulation. When we say that discourse is reasoned we mean that it asks the listener or reader to suspend judgment and look at the facts before making a decision or changing his behavior. In this section, we shall be considering methods of employing that reasoned discourse in argument.

Introductory Lecture Continued

Reasoned discourse has two major parts: evidence and the logical interpretation thereof. Reasoned discourse endeavors to clarify a problem by means of a reasonable interpretation of available information. Proof for this type of persuasion consists of two ingredients--evidence and arguments based on evidence. The evidence or information employed is of two types:

Fact Evidence: Evidence made up of those facts which we can confirm by observation--evidence that is verifiable and can be validated.

Opinion Evidence: Evidence that consists of reliable opinion as to what the facts are or will be under certain conditions. This type of evidence can range from inexpert and non-expert opinion and carefully supported judgements.

In discovering evidence, one must be guided by these two principles:

Relevance: Evidence which as a bearing on the problem involved is said to be relevant. A prerequisite to the discovery of relevant facts is the formulation of a clear statement of the problem.

Reliability: Because a speaker almost always deals with reports of evidence rather than objective, verifiable evidence, he must judge the reliability of the source of the report in three ways:

(1) He must evaluate the probable reliability of the source.

(2) He must check the consistency of the reported evidence with other evidence reported by the same source.

(3) He must check the consistency of the reported evidence with other evidence.

Lecture Continued

Both <u>induction</u> and <u>deduction</u> are widely used in materials pertaining to reasoned discourse. <u>Induction</u> may be defined as the process of drawing a conclusion from the examination of specific data. <u>Deduction</u> begins with the acceptance of a general statement and applies it to a specific instance. Both of these procedures can be found in the same discourse, however. Usually any long argument involves both the citing of specific instances and the drawing of conclusions from them--inductive reasoning. The conclusions are applied to particular cases--deductive reasoning. Of the methods described below, one is primarily inductive--argument from statistics.

<u>Argument from Statistics</u> involves the drawing of conclusion from numerical evidence. This device involves three pitfalls:

(1) Undocumented statistical assertions given without accompanying information necessary to interpret them.

(2) Tricky percentages cited without the details of the existing circumstances necessary to decide whether the percentage arguments are meaningful.

(3) Hypothetical situations based on little more than guesswork incapable of substantial confirmation.

<u>Argument from Circumstantial Detail</u>, sometimes called sign reasoning since the existence of the entity is inferred from what are considered to be invariant signs of it, is that in which a number of items not intimately related to each other by cause-to-effect relationships combine to form a pattern. The conclusion in this type is the missing link completing

the pattern. This type of argument is one of the most flexible and useful forms of reasoned discourse. It is derived from courtroom proceedings.

Lecture Continued

Argument from Comparison involves the examination of two cases whose similarities are noted. The point of this type of argument is the establishment of the conclusion that what was true of one of the cases examined will be true of the other. This is sometimes called literal analogy. Argument from comparison is only as good as the similarity which can be established between the two cases considered. If an argument from comparison is to be valid, the items of similarity must clearly outweigh the items of difference.

A type of comparison that relies upon difference is an exception to this criterion: Comparison for the Purpose of Contrast. The use of this device implies that the two cases should be similar but are not.

Argument from Analogy compares two cases which are fundamentally different in nature but which operate on common principles. By reducing complicated problems to a principle, the analogy represents over-simplication. Technically an analogy can never be sound logical argument because it is a form of comparison involving dissimilar cases in which its validity is determined by the points of similarity outweighing the points of difference. Because the two cases compared in analogy fall in different subject matter areas, the points of difference will always outweigh the points

Lecture Continued

of similarity; therefore, because the identity of principles is never enough to make an analogy a valid comparison, it is a false comparison.

Argument from analogy is one of the favorite devices of commentators and columnists.

Argument by Generalizations formulates a conclusion of a general nature by the inductive process. A generalization is an hypothesis used to account for a series of events. The more the specific instances conform to the hypothesis, the more probable the conclusion. Generalizations are of three types:

(1) Asserted, which has no factual, no visible means of support, only the word of the person making it.

(2) Hasty, which has some support in the form of evidence but not enough to justify the conclusion.

(3) Sound, which consists of formulating a conclusion from the examination of evidence which seems to be adequately supported by that evidence. Its two identifying features are its conservative wording and its citation of specific evidence.

Argument by Authority may be classified according to source, extending from hearsay authority to the opinion of a recognized authority (expert) with name, date, and context given. The notion that authoritative statements come only from experts or specialists is a misconception. Inexpert authority, allegedly typical of the man in the street, is being used increasingly in current persuasion. This process of argument, by authority, is usually the simplest of the nine methods. Often the authoritative statement is in the form of a contention advocated by the persuader. Howell and

Lecture Continued

Brembeck (p. 223) quote C. A. Baird's six standard tests for authority argument:

(1) Is the authority competent?

(2) Is the authority prejudiced?

(3) Is the authority reliable?

(4) Is the authority definite?

(5) Is the authority supported by other sources?

(6) Is the authority supported by argument from specific instances, causal relation, and analogy?

Argument by Condition, a unit of deductive reasoning, rests totally upon a foundation of assumption which must be granted before the argument itself is meaningful. In a conditional argument, two separate items are related by an if-then sequence: should one specified circumstance come about, the other necessarily follows. Evaluation of this type of argument involves two operations:

(1) Locating the steps in the argument including conclusions and premises implied, rearranging them if necessary because the arguments as given may not be in logical order.

(2) Locating the underlying assumptions with the greatest possible accuracy and rewording it.

Argument by Alternation involves limiting the possibilities in the argument to a small number, usually two, and then determining a choice of one of the alternatives. This is the either-or argument. If the argument presents two alternatives, allegedly the only possible courses of action, and the persuader shows that if either of these is adopted unpleasant

results will follow, the choice becomes unimportant since neither alternative represents a usable course of action. The persuader says that the people are confronted with a dilemma, which might be called the black or black type of alternation. If one choice is highly desirable and the other most undesirable, we have a white or black variety. Another type of argument by alternation attempts in a realistic way to enumerate possible courses of action and to examine the results of each. In this case the alternatives are not limited to two. This form is more comprehensive than either of the other forms of alternation because we can recognize the varying shades of gray that may occur between two polar possibilities. Evaluation of this type of argument involves answering these questions:

(1) Are all possible alternatives presented and fairly stated?

(2) Are the alternatives mutually exclusive?

(3) Are we willing to accept the evidence and reasoning submitted in support of the various alternatives or to break them down?

Student Assignments

1. Select a speech or a significant editorial statement dealing with a major area of current controversy. (Sources for speeches might include Representative American Speeches or Vital Speeches, or newspaper records of important public addresses. Editorial statements may be found in newspaper or periodical sources. In these speeches or editorials, find examples of:

   A. Argument from circumstantial detail
   B. Argument from authority
   C. Analogy

2. Develop a speech or an essay of your own centering on an issue of controversy about which you feel some commitment. Your discourse should develop a consistent thesis employing at least three of the logical methods of persuasion.

3. There are excerpts from six speeches in Appendix B.
   - "A Moral Imperative" by John F. Kennedy
   - "Opportunities for All" by Wayne F. Morse
   - "Must We Hate?" by Archibald MacLeish
   -"A Plea for the Negro Race" by Booker T. Washington
   -"Speech and the Community" by Robert T. Oliver
   -"The New South" by Henry Grady

   Read through three of these excerpts and find examples of logical devices of persuasion.

4. In the examples you found in question #3, how effectively were these devices used? Criticize the use of these devices.

TO THE TEACHER: After you have completed the activities of this portion of the unit, you may want to make a transition to the next portion of the unit by making a statement of the following nature:

"Now that we have been alerted to the necessity of being aware of the persuasive forces around us and have learned something about the WHO and the HOW of persuasion, we shall move on to the audience and the context in which persuasion occurs.

Transitional Lecture: May be read to the students or paraphrased by teacher.

Note: During the next several days, considerable time will be devoted to lectures. Teachers will feel free to stop, question and discuss as time goes on.

In keeping with the overall pattern or system by which we are attempting to study certain basic elements of persuasion, we come now to a consideration of "Audience." It is, of course, important that we understand that the divisions -- speaker or writer, the discourse, itself, and the audience -- are merely major aspects of the process by which we organize our study. In no real sense can they be separated so easily. Persuasion is a process and, as a process, results from the interrelations of these aspects of the total act of communicating.

Lecture Continued

By fastening our attention, now on the audience, we begin with the assumption that all purposeful communication arises from a particular context. That context may have a great many dimensions. For instance, a given act of communication occurs in a historical setting. Thus, the major elements of the historical setting which influenced Tom Paine's writing of Common Sense or The Crisis are not the same as those which influenced Abraham Lincoln at the time of his First Inaugral Address.

Another dimension of the "context of persuasion" relates to the various social factors in a given audience. Thus, the various group memberships and allegiances, the values held in common, are important keys in the total social structure, to the context in which the language of persuasion must operate.

Modern psychology provides yet other dimensions of the total context, by describing the motives, the "mechanisms," or the structuring of personality "systems" which condition particular kinds of responses to particular kinds of verbal stimuli. Such notions of context might be expanded, but perhaps this is sufficient to understand the complexity and subtlety of the process of attempting to shift someone's opinion or belief through the medium of language.

We shall attempt, then, to bring certain major dimensions of the context of persuasion together in our consideration of audience. Thus, the speaker or writer's audience is his immediate context--the notion of

Lecture Continued

audience includes an appreciation of historical, sociological, and psychological factors which shape our persuasive intentions.

Let us now consider audience by briefly analyzing those contexts which define it. They are: (1) the historical context; (2) the sociological context; and (3) the psychological context.

Once again, these major headings are ways of organizing our material. They do not, in the "real world" of making choices, exist separately from one another. As an obvious example, an individual's belief on the question of Civil Rights can only be properly understood by an appreciation of the historical circumstances surrounding the position of the Negro in American Society from the earliest colonial times to the present. Such patterns or systems of belief have, accordingly, influenced the sequence of events recorded by history.

In turn, these large scale systems of "believing" are influenced by the "needs" of the individual organism as it interacts in a social and historical setting. It is not altogether ridiculous, then, to explain certain attitudes and values with regard to minorities as the result of psychological motives such as "drives" toward 'mastery,' 'approval,' etc. Thus, we may appreciate while our "headings" for the contexts defining an audience can be separately approached for purposes of studying the process, they are always in

close relationship to one another.

B. THE HISTORICAL CONTEXT

May be read to students or paraphrased.

No linguistic event: no speech, no essay, no editorial occurs in isolation. Each occurs in a sequence of time and space. Each speech is an event which is usually a response to something that has gone before; President Kennedy's Inaugural Address was an event which was a result of the election, the campaign, the convention, and the tradition of the Presidential Inaugural Addresses.

Some teachers may wish to duplicate for distribution to class for their study.

Language, then, occurs in a context which has a history. Governor Wallace, giving a speech supporting states rights, may trace the argument for states rights back to Patrick Henry. The issue of civil rights is one which is imbedded in our history. Further, a speech or essay is one which occurs in a given place. Where the speech occurs may determine in part the nature of the persuasion.

At the most obvious level, we may say that a speech delivered in the United States will differ from a speech delivered in France. Obviously they will differ in language. They will also differ because of the nature of conditions peculiar to the culture of a country and to its history. Even where nations share the English language, persuasion in Great Britain may differ from persuasion in the United States because of the differing historical and geographical contexts.

Lecture Continued

Also, a speech or editorial is a historical event. It is an event which has an immediate past, and a remote past. Hence we can differentiate the general historical context from the immediate historical context. Let us illustrate the differing historical contexts using the Compromise of 1850. In the general historical context we might cite the first entry of slaves into the United States, the growth of slavery, the dependence of the Southern economy upon slavery, the Missouri Compromise, the entry of new states, and the tension over slavery. In the immediate historical context, we find a debate raging in the Senate over the entry of California into the Union and the status of slavery in Western territories. We might state the position of each of the speakers, Webster, Clay, and Calhoun. The immediate context is the issue on which the debate is centered and its implications, as well as the nature of the debate (in this case, a debate in the Halls of Congress).

Since each speech or essay occurs in a context, we might be aware of the historical and geographical affect on the persuader and his persuasion. Without an understanding of the general historical context and the immediate historical context, valuable information relative to the persuasion will be lost. The historical and geographical contexts may well shape the nature of the audience, and the speaker must be aware of how the audience has been influenced by the

historical context of the persuasion he is attempting.

It might be easier for a persuader if his persuasion did occur in a vacuum; that it was influenced by nothing which occurred before he spoke or wrote. On the other hand, his persuasion may be enriched and gain in effectiveness by a thorough analysis of the tradition in which it arises. The historical context will often provide the speaker or writer with materials which will aid his persuasion. But because language occurs in context and not in isolation, because that context is both historical and geographical, because that historical context is both general and immediate, the persuader and the person persuaded must be aware of the context in which persuasion occurs.

B. THE SOCIOLOGICAL CONTEXT

Sample Lecture--
May be read to
students.

What we consider under this heading simply reflects our understanding that the preferences of given people are a function of -- are shaped or influenced by -- their interaction in "groups." The various groups in which an individual holds membership conditions his view of the world about him. Thus, a teenage member of a "delinquent" gang (a group) will hold certain patterns of belief or value different from the person who is not a member of such a group. That is to say that the individual reflects the values of the groups with which he associates.

Now, the study of small group membership and its impact on behavior is an extremely broad aspect of modern

Lecture Continued

sociological science. We can, here, only sketch certain of the important elements of such study as they bear on the analysis of "practical discourse." We simply insist that the successful writer or speaker must understand the group memberships which help to shape the attitudes of the audience. Most simply conceived, such a writer or speaker asks himself questions like these:

(1) What group memberships are shared by this audience?

(2) What do I know, generally, about the kinds of beliefs held by such groups?

(3) In the light of such beliefs what is the likely response to my persuasive intent?

(4) How can I <u>identify</u> with such patterns of belief in order to get the most satisfactory "hearing" for my proposal?

Further, our individual social memberships are, in part, the result of membership in larger "groups," best consdiered as social classes. Whether we use economic wealth, influence or power, extent of formal education, or position of residence in the community as the criterion for determining class, we know that classes exist. As a matter of fact, the ordering (the hierarchical principle) of people in a social system is probably an inescapable aspect of group life. As one sociologist put it, "The only secret is that there isn't any secret."

As people belong, then to social classes, their memberships in particular groups become somewhat predictable. Thus, for example, the Eastern "million-heiress" and debutante will not have the same pattern

Lecture Continued

of "affiliations" that we expect in a girl from a small Midwestern town whose father happens to work at the feed mill. And most assuredly, anyone writing or speaking to persuade must be aware of the differences implied by such differences. Our ordinary language reflects them accurately enough, as when we say "the working class," "the upper crust," or when we refer to "blue" or "white" collar occupations and so on. Since a major job of the persuader must be his attempt to identify with his audience--he must be aware of such divisions and the differing patterns of belief and value which they reflect. Thus, a modern writer concludes: "Identification is affirmed with earnestness precisely because there is division. Identification is compensatory to division. If men were not apart from one another, there would be no need for the (writer or speaker) to proclaim their unity." (Burke-Rhetoric of Motives p. 546.)

We cannot detail a complete list of such "divisions" here. And there is no need to, as each of us, having grown up in the society, is aware of their existence. The point to be made is simply that we concentrate on them, analyzing our audience for their presence and implications for shaping our "Persuasion." Leading questions which may assist us in uncovering such "divisions" might include some or all of the following:

(1) Where in a simple scale of class membership (lower, middle, upper) can I assume this audience is "placed?"

(2) What economic groups or "divisions" are represented?

(Labor, management, professionals, etc.)

(3) What levels of educational achievement or background may I assume to be characteristic of this audience?

(4) What sources of authority or influence is this audience likely to "hear" -- to dislike or "not hear?"

(5) What other communication channels--particularly as they are related to my own intent--may I expect that this audience is conditioned to?

(Newspapers, televisions, particular kinds of periodical literature, books)

(6) How do the members of this audience, generally, see their own position in the social structure? What assumptions might this lead them to with reference to their potential "influence" on this or related issues?

Such questions are at best only suggestive of a great many more. And the truly effective speaker or writer is marked by his ability to discover such questions and to fashion his discourse according to the assumptions he makes about their probable answers.

Lecture Continued

Finally, we come to a consideration of "values" as they provide a further refinement of our original notion of the context of Audience. What we have attempted to suggest are certain broad types of questions which we typically pose in analyzing audiences according to their group membership and "divisions." We are still involved in that enterprise. Up to now, however. we have listed the questions the writer or speaker must ask. Now we propose to sketch in certain persistent answers to such questions. Our attempt is to encourage the listener and

reader as well as the speaker and writer to note the consistency with which such answers--what we will call "cultural values"--are at the base of persuasive identifications.

Note: Teacher may wish to write terms and definitions on chalkboard.

Thus, if persuasion assumes the existence of controversy--it assumes the possibility of choosing between alternatives in a given setting--its choices will be conditioned by what some audience, at some time, assumes to be desirable. These assumptions of desirability are based on cultural values, shaped by individual participation in a given social setting. Accordingly, a modern scientist defines a cultural value as: "A conception distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available means and ends of action." Thus, if we were to ask the question, "What larger patterns of belief or assumptions about the "desirable" are characteristic of Americans?" we might arrive at a list of general propositions. To the extent that these propositions are shared by members of a particular audience, they provide the ground or basis for the writers attempt to link his objective with his audience's conception of the "good" or the "desirable."

Thus, the propositions (cultural values) which are listed later represent statements of common belief derived by scientific observation. We are, in this study, encouraged to participate in that observation by noting the explicit or implicit presence of such assumptions in

persuasive discourse--as it is addressed to us, or as we address it to others.

Lecture Continued

Major Value: American society stresses desirability in terms of "Effort and Optimism."

(1) Work--effort--is a positive good in itself, and in what we may achieve by it.

(2) As man's relationship to nature tends to be viewed as one of technological mastery over it, a premium (value) is placed on active operations on the physical environment.

(3) The value on work--activity--implies the notion of desirability which attaches to effort marked by physical mobility in particular. (Even leisure and fun are "active.")

(4) Work--the result of effort--can change things. It's getting better. Progress is continuous and is directly related to our efforts toward mastering the environment.

(5) Thus, education--both as work, in itself, and as a means toward progressive achievement is valued.

Major Value: American society stresses the desirability of Material Well Being.

(1) Success is, or tends to be, measured by material or economic prosperity. The emphasis relates to emphasis on quantification and size as criterion for measuring desirability.

(2) The compulsive activism by which material well being is achieved through effort and optimism has as a corrolary a negative value placed on the realities on physical pain, the purely contemplative, incapacity of any sort and, finally, death.

Major Value: American society stresses certain dimensions of social conformity.

(1) Realization of the individual self is desirable, but within a mechanistically conceived universe. Equality and perfectibility are prized in a given social and political "system."

(2) The value placed on egalitarianism does not extend to highly idiosyncratic behavior--and the dominant value is placed on achieving similiarity rather than uniqueness.

(3) Friendliness, openess, relaxation or interpersonal relations are aspects of the desirable or valued.

(4) Hostility to authority--is culturally pervasive, particularly as authority outstrips definitions of equality and similarity.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Select one of the speeches from Appendix B of this unit. Make an analysis of the "contexts" to which the speech was in part of response. Your analysis should, thus, attempt to provide the following kinds of information:

   a. What were the immediate historical circumstances surrounding this speech?

   b. Of what larger web of historical circumstance are the immediate circumstances a part?

   c. Who made up the speaker's intended audience? Was there both a specific and an alternate audience? How do particular aspects of the speaker's total response suggest the existence of both a specific and an ultimate audience?

   d. To the extent that such persuasion is addressed to the largest possible audience, the speaker seeks to identify himself with the most widely held common beliefs or values. What typical American cultural values form a basis for the speaker's range of argument?

   e. In terms of the general and immediate historical circumstances, the nature of the specific and ultimate audience, and the range of values on which the argument is based, how would you judge the effectiveness of the speaker's total act.?

2. Select a significant editorial statement dealing with some area of contemporary public policy, appearing either in a newspaper or magazine. Following a careful reading, set down in writing the assumptions that you believe the writer made about his audience. You may be assisted in your analysis by keeping the following in mind:

Activities Continued

a. To how wide or inclusive an audience does the writer's statement appear to be directed? That is, does it appeal to a broad segment of the population or does he appear to have a more narrowly defined "public" in mind? What cues in the discourse condition your answer?

b. How significant--how far reaching--are the historical circumstances within which the writer's language is engaged?

c. What assumptions does the writer appear to make regarding the "division" recognized by his audience? At what point or range within the social structure does he aim his argument?

d. Is there any value or notion of what is "good" or "desirable" on which the writer consistently bases his argument?

e. How effectively does the writer's total range of language choice register his perception of the "contexts" within which his discourse must be interpreted?

Introductory Lecture:
May be read to students.

C. THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTEXT

As we shift our attention to the psychological aspects, we will try to define certain general structures of motivation--why we do certain things. Motivation is affected by the individual's existence in a social setting, so that the particular patterns of behaving represent certain common "needs" or "drives" arising from the biological and psychological nature of man.

There has, in past decades, been great interest in applying the psychologist's findings to certain areas of everyday behavior. Those who analyze motivation have attempted to study in depth the psychological factors involved in everything from the purchase of a particular kind of hand soap to a sleek convertible.

What the probers are looking for are the "whys" of our behavior, so that they can more effectively manipulate our habits and make choices in their favor. This has led them to probe why we are afraid of banks; why we love those big fat cars; why we buy homes; why men smoke cigars; why the kind of car we drive reveals the brand of gasoline we will buy; why housewives typically fall into a trance when they get into a supermarket; why men are drawn into auto showrooms by convertibles but end up buying sedans; why junior loves cereal that pops, snaps, and crackles. Thus motivation research is the type of research that seeks to learn what motivates people into making choices.

These motivational analysts, in working with symobl manipulators, are adding depth to the selling of ideas and products. They are learning to offer us considerably more than the actual item involved. Why will a woman pay $2.50 for skin cream but no more than 25¢ for a cake of soap? Soap promises to make her clean. The cream promises to make her beautiful. The women are buying a promise. The cosmetic manufacturers are not selling lanolin, they are selling hope. We no longer buy oranges, we buy vitality. We do not buy just an auto, we buy presitge.

Let's see how you fit into the pattern designed by the symobi manipulators, by analyzing your reasons or motives for your actions.

1. When you woke up this morning, why did you get out of bed--a secure, warm haven--to enter a cold, unreceptive busy world?

   (There will be answers ranging from, "My mother called me to breakfast," "I had to do chores, milk cows," "I had to go to school," and the mundane but necessary, "I had to go to the bathroom.")

2. If we try to analyze or classify these reasons, we should note some kind of a pattern. If the smell of frying bacon sharpened your sense of hunger you were responding to a basic motive or "drive" (hunger) that is described as physiological. Can you name some other physiological drives?

   (thirst, sex, temperature regulation, rest from fatigue, eliminative tensions, etc.)

Lecture-Discussion Continued

Let's take an example of the drive "temperature regulation" which is related to internal stimuli. On a very hot day, you decide to eat in a restaurant. As you approach the downtown section, you see one restaurant which says, "10° Cooler Inside." Eat in air-conditioned comfort" while the other restaurant advertises "Delicious home-made apple pie." If the heat is oppressive, you will probably choose the air conditioned restaurant, even though your hunger drive is strong. Eventually both drives--hunger and temperature regulation will be fulfilled--but the immediate necessity of eliminating the oppressive heat was stronger.

Going back to your responses to why you got up this morning, we see that having to milk the cows, do the chores, study for a test, or get to school would not fit into the classification of physiological drives. A drive could be defined simply as an energy or force which seeks satisfaction. Milking the cows

Note

does not constitute a physiological drive for you, although it might for the cow. Going to school, getting up at a decent hour, not missing the school bus are not based on physiological, but rather sociological stimuli. Animals live on a level of physical gratification, but man does not. With the use of language, he has many more motivational forces working in him.

3. For whatever reason, we probably have you on your feet by now and you are ready for the next step in your daily routine. Would you classify brushing one's teeth as a physiological drive? Before we answer this question, let's see why you brush your teeth.

   (To get them clean? It's a habit? To reduce tooth decay? To eliminate bad taste?)

   Let's read a quotation from Vance Packard in <u>The Hidden Persuaders</u> to see what motivational analysts have come up with in the field of tooth brushing.

Read Excerpt #1 from Vance Packard's <u>The Hidden Persuaders</u> (N.Y.: Pocket Books, Inc.), pp. 12-13, beginning "Our tooth brushing habits" and ending "understanding or manipulating people."

Do you see yourself in this picture? Can you pinpoint your motive? According to Packard, "many of us are being influenced and manipulated, far more than we realize it, in the patterns of our everyday life."

It seems strange that social approval or conformity enter into a basic hygienic function such as tooth brushing, but they do. Because psychologists recognized the difference between this motivation and a physiological drive, they named these socially determined urges <u>motives</u>.

5. To continue with your day, when you got to school, you attended classes where you responded in some manner to your teacher. Why is it you did your homework for Mr. C. and Miss H. but not for Mrs. W.?

   (I like one teacher better. I like the subject. It is easier. She'd kill me if I didn't. I don't want to appear foolish in class. I want an "A" in the course.)

There are several factors working here. Maybe you were motivated by all these ideas, maybe only one. This is one danger in attributing motives: naming is not explaining. We could say you wanted to get your work in because you wanted an "A," but maybe you wanted an "A" to get into college, to prove your worth, or to please your parents. This complexity broadens as living becomes more complicated.

Lecture-Discussion Continued

Before going on and enumerating some general categories of motivation, let's define the two types we have described. As you remember, we called them drives and motives. Drive can be defined as an energy or force seeking satisfaction. Motive is learned behavior which has become associated with the release of tension produced by the drive. An example of the difference: stomach contractions may arouse a drive known as hunger. This drive can be stopped by a certain subsistence motive the person has developed.

Write definitions on board. Discuss.

Teacher may need to define words unfamiliar to students.

A quick glance at history will reveal to us how men have reacted to the hunger drive. Esau sold his birthright for food, the Jewish war prisoner cheated, lied, and betrayed his own for food, and Mohandas Gandhi said, "God himself dare not appear to a hungry man

except in the form of food." What do you think that statement means?

(Class discussion about the power of a basic drive and what it does to man's higher instincts.)

One generalization we can make from studies of hunger is that man is more easily persuaded when his hunger drive is unfulfilled. How have governments used this basic drive for proselytizing purposes?

We spoke of these drives as being related to internal stimuli. External, or outside, stimuli give rise to other drives. They are: bodily injury and emotional tensions. An example of each would be: we exercise great caution when it comes to protecting ourself against harm. We avoid by learning about cuts, bruises, unpleasant food, etc. Fear, rage, and love would be examples of emotional tensions.

Unlike our physiological drives, our social motives are based primarily on the fact that we are dependent on others for social approval. There are very few, like Thoreau, who said, "If a man does not keep pace with his companions, perhaps it is because he hears a different drummer. Let him step to the music he hears, however, measured or far away." According to the set of expectations each individual has, his motives differ. Let us attempt, now, to classify some of these motives into general categories.

Teacher should write terms on board.

1. <u>Subsistence Motives</u> They satisfy basic needs, lead to provision of drink, food and bodily protection. Included are: economic motives,

Lecture-Discussion
Continued

profit motives, acquisative wants, desire for property, work motives, self-perservation, health and safety motives, material mindedness.

(1) On looking over this list, what do you think might be the substitute stimulus for subsistence satisfactions?

(money)

(2) How would this operate in each case?

How do these motives reflect themselves in our daily lives?

(Some labor from sunup to sundown, some seek their fortune in adventurous pursuit, some cheat, lie, steal and feel justified in doing so.)

2. Social Approval Motives. These are based on the fact that we depend on each other. We could not exist if others did not notice us. The motto of this group might be, "What will people say?" An adjunct learning from this motive is that people who work in groups do more work.

3. Conformity Motives. This group is very close to the social approval group. The one is positive, the other, negative. Can you explain what I mean by this statement?

(Elicit idea that we hope to achieve one actively--social approval--while we avoid situations where we would be blamed--avoiding punishment by conformity.)

We go along with the majority. This has also been called imitation motive. You might recall at least two American writers who were opposed to this type of action--

Emerson and Thoreau. Your age group is especially responsive to motives 2 and 3. Why do you think this is so, if it is?

(Discussion about the persuasibility and group tendency of teen-agers.)

Lecture-Discussion Continued

When you dressed for school today can you recall any conversation you had with yourself about what to wear? How did you make up your mind? Was it based on what others were wearing? Did you ever check with the other girls to see how they were dressing for a party? Was your evening ever ruined because you were over-dressed or under-dressed? Is this conformity motive only applicable to girls? Are boys immune? What is this called in propaganda devices?

We might make a generalization here and say that social approval is based on desire, and conformity is based on fear. Look at yourself and decide if you conform because of fear.

4. Mastery Motives. Because of our basic emotional tension called rage, we have a mastery motive. We manifest our rage in trying to excel, to master, to compete, to dominate, to lead, to gain prestige. Packard calls this snob appeal

"Other motivation analysts pointed out that snob appeal was the basic motivation governing the purchase of sterling silver flatware. Women talk at length about its fine durability and craftsmanship but actually want it for prestige and show-off value. Even the choice of a political party can have its social-climbing value.

One Republican clubwoman was quoted as predicting that the GOP could win in 1956 if it persuaded the women voters of America that 'It's fashionable to be Republican.'"

5. Sex Motives. Remember when talking about physiological drives we said we were not like animals in that we had a language. We didn't always react in a forth-right manner because of our social differences. In sex this is very apparent. Although animals satisfy sexual demands in a direct manner, our social barriers cause us to behave according to customs, mores, etc. In The Scarlet Letter we have a good example of a woman being publicly humiliated, imprisoned and forced to bear the onus of the scarlet letter for an act which we today might make a moral judgment on but not a legal one. In different societies and cultures, man sets up rules governing sexual behavior. While we feel monogamy is the best structure, polyandry and polygamy are equally acceptable in other societies. According to the structure man has set up, his stimuli and response differ. Sex motives are the most widely used in advertising. Listen to an example furnished by Packard:

Teacher reads paragraph on wrestling to class.

An evidence of the extent to which sexual appeals have been carried is available in the so-called sport of wrestling. The discovery was made that the grunt and groan spectacles of professional wrestling, supposedly a sweaty he-man sport, survive only because of the feminine fans. A Nielsen check of TV fans watching wrestling matches revealed that ladies outnumbered men two to one. The promoters of the matches, shrewdly calculating the triggers that produced the most squeals from feminine fans, stepped up the sadism (men writhing in torture), the all-

powerful male symbolism (chest beating and muscle flexing) and fashion interest (more and more elegant costumes for the performers.)

Vance Packard, The Hidden Persuaders.

6. Mixed Motives. We mentioned this fact before. An example might be parental love, which starts by fondling and taking care of a child but which may turn into a social approval motive, and even a prestige factor may result. Creativeness, too, is an example of a mixed motive. It may be classified as mastery and also social approval when one says, "I made this myself."

Discuss any ads that use this motive

7. Habits as Motives. This is a small group which would include overcoming habit. For example, a farmer is not interested in prestige in buying a tractor; you have to prove to him that it is better than the old way.

Review classifications on board.

Thus we have the basic types of motivation, in which you can fit most human action.

SUGGESTED RELATED ACTIVITY

1. To suggest the persuasive context of such motivational grounds in the audience, the teacher may wish to select an essay in American literature, or a current editorial from a periodical source for general class reading. Based on that reading, class discussion ought to center on the writer's assumptions of the motivational context of his audience. That is, what motive structures does the essay or editorial assume, and how do these structures provide the ground for the writer's argument? Is the range of motives assumed broad, or does it emphasize a single motive? How effectively does the writer "manipulate the motives" of his readers?

2. Have class members present five or six ads to the students and have them classify the appeal of the ads according to the motive. Such ads might include the following:

Avis-rent-a-car's appeal to the second best.
Volkswagon ads
Any full page hunger exciting ad.
Hathaway's man with eye patch.
Pepsi's for those who think young, etc.

SUGGESTED CULMINATING UNIT ACTIVITIES

1. Individual class members may wish to read and present for discussion key chapters selected from Vance Packard's The Hidden Persuaders and Eric Hoffer's The True Believer.

2. Topics for special reports, particularly relevant at this point in the unit might be any of the following (materials are contained in the appendices.)

   a. The relationship of "rumor" to persuasion.

   b. Persuasion and the theories of congruity and dissonance.

3. Rhetorical analysis. Select a speech or an essay addressed to an issue of major importance in the cause of our nation's history. Develop a critical essay of 3000 to 5000 words which places that particular persuasive act in the perspectives with which we have dealt during this unit. Your own choice will condition the aspects, within the limits of the paper, what you will emphasize. In any case, your essay will need to analyze:

   1. the speaker or writer;
   2. the written document or speech itself;
   3. the audience to which it was addressed.

   Employing as many of the relevant patterns of analysis discussed in this unit as are appropriate, attempt in your essay to show how these major aspects of the persuasion process influence one another. Finally, you may wish, on the basis of your study, to make a judgment of the total effectiveness of the speaker's or writer's act in terms of the varied contexts shaping it.

GENERAL BIBLIOGRAPHY

Some books which may help the teacher in teaching this unit are:

1. Allport, Gordon W. and Leo Postman, The Psychology of Rumor, Henry Holt and Company, N.Y., 1948.

2. Berlo, David K., The Process of Communication, New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1960.

3. Brembeck and Howell, Persuasion, Prentice-Hall, 1952.

4. Brown, Roger, Words and Things, Free Press of Glencoe, 1958, pp. 299-342.

5. Burke, Kenneth, The Rhetoric of Motives, New York, Prentice-Hall, 1950.

6. DuBois, Cora, "The Dominant Value of Profile of American Culture," The American Anthropologist, 57:1955.

7. Festinger, Leon, Cognitive Dissonance, Evanston: Row, Peterson, and Company, 1957.

8. Hayakawa, S.I., Language in Thought and Action, New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1949.

9. Hoffer, Eric, The True Believer, Mentor paperback.

10. Kluckhohn, Florence, "Dominant and Substitute Profiles of Cultural Orientation: Their Significance for the Analysis of Social Stratification", Social Forces, 28:1950.

11. McClelland, David, Studies in Motivation, Appleton-Century, 1955.

12. Miller, Clyde, Process of Persuasion, Crown Publishers, 1946.

13. _____, The Achievement Motive, Appleton-Century, 1953.

14. Oliver, Robert, Persuasive Thinking, New York, Longmans, 1950.

15. Osgood, Charles, The Measurement of Meaning, Urbana: University of Illinois, 1957.

16. Peters, R.S., Concept of Motivation,Routledge and Kogen, 1958.

17. Packard, Vance, Status Seekers

18. _____, Hidden Persuaders

19. _____, Pyramid Climbers

20. _____, Waste Makers, Pocketbooks

21. Rueckert, William, Kenneth Burke and the Drama of Human Relations, Minneapolis, University of Minnesota Press, 1963.

22. Yale Studies in Attitude, Personality, Persuasibility, Vol. 2.

APPENDIX A

Sample Textbook Definitions of "Persuasion" (May be reproduced and distributed to students.

1. "The process of directing the resources of discourse so as to control, as far as possible, the opinions and beliefs, the conduct and behavior, of an audience." D.C. Bryant and Karl Wallace. Fundamentals of Public Speaking, Third Edition, New York: Appleton, Century Crofts, Inc., 1960, p. 287.

   Clarifications: Persuasive speaking--"an attempt to influence the attitude of an audience"

   attitude scale

   +3 +2 +1 0 -1 -2 -3
   favorable neutral unfavorable

   Aid: to secure favorable attitudes or to modify unfavorable attitudes. Wants to move his listeners left on scale. Attitudes about anything: school problems, federal aid to education, sales tax, insurance, motives.

2. "To stimulate the listener's attitude into an active acceptance of mild beliefs, or to stimulate action on propositions to which they agree, give lip-service, but do nothing." W.N. Brigance, Speech, Second Edition, New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1961, p. 190.

3. "The art of speaking in which the speaker adapts himself and his speech to his listeners and to the speech situation." Sarett, Foster, and Sarett, Basic Principles of Speech, Third Edition, Cambridge: Riverside Press, 1958, p. 398.

   --"to persuade means to use speech in such a way as to lead one's listeners to change their beliefs or behavior in a special direction predetermined by the speaker." (p. 454).

4. "An art rooted in an essential function of language itself...; the use of language as a symbolic means of inducing cooperation in beings that by nature respond to symbols." Kenneth Burke, A Rhetoric of Motives, New York: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1950, p. 43.

5. "Differentiates persuasion and argument--persuasion uses all the available means of persuasion (Aristotelian) (facts, logic, emotions, and rationalization) whereas argument is "reasoned discourse"--both to influence human conduct, belief, or feelings." Oliver, Psychology of Persuasive Speech, New York: Longmans, Green, 1957, p. 9.

6. "Persuasion is the process of inducing others to give fair, favorable or undivided attention to propositions." James Albert Winans, Quoted by Oliver, p. 11.

7. "The process of devising the means of making clear and emphatic the particular elements of a situation which will induce the listeners to note and recall as 'the trigger of action' precisely those factors that will lead them to the conclusion desired by the speaker." Oliver, p. 116.

2

8. "Argument is the process of reaching conclusions; persuasion is the act of getting others to accept these conclusions." MacCrimmon, Writing With A Purpose, Second Edition, p. 324.

9. "Exposure to a persuasive communication which successfully induces the individual to accept a new opinion constitutes a learning experience in which a new verbal habit is acquired." Hovland, Janis, Kelley, Communication and Persuasion, p. 10.

These speeches are listed as examples of persuasive discourse. They center on a consistent theme or issue in our own history, and point to the truly momentous implications of the issue in our own time. At selected points in the unit, we refer the student to these speeches as models for a given pattern of analysis. They provide, of course, a very limited selection, and the unit encourages throughout student reading and analysis of other speeches, essays, and other kinds of persuasive discourse.

TO THE TEACHER:

The centering of these speeches on a given theme may suggest to the teacher the advantages, as the unit is taught, of building a bibliography of additional speech texts, essays and editorials centering on other historically controversial themes, to be employed in future teaching of this unit.

Speeches

1. "Must We Hate?" - Archibald MacLeish

2. "A Moral Imperative" - John F. Kennedy

3. "The New South" - Henry W. Grady

4. "A Plea For The Negro Race" - Booker T. Washington

5. "Opportunities For All" - Wayne Morse

6. "Speech And The Community" - Robert T. Oliver